Book Reviews

Parsing Schemata for Practical Text Analysis

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Deductive systems are a widely used exposition technique in contemporary computational linguistics to explain novel parsing algorithms (e.g., Huang and Sagae 2010) and decoders in machine translation (e.g., Huang and Mi 2010). Deductive parsing provides a succinct formal syntax that abstracts away the implementation details yet directly reflects the time and space complexity of the underlying algorithm.

A deductive system can be viewed as a domain-specific declarative schema that specifies a parser at an abstract level, focusing on the semantics of the parser actions rather than implementation. The schema itself can be compiled into an executable parser allowing implementation optimizations to be shared across different parsing algorithms. Schemas thus provide quick prototyping of parsing algorithms. In the notation used by the compiler described in this book we would describe the familiar CYK parsing algorithm (Kasami 1965; Younger 1967) as the following declarative specification:

\[
\text{@step Unary} \\
\begin{align*}
[a,i,i+1][A,i,i+1] & \quad A \to a \\
\text{@step Binary} \\
[B,i,j][C,j,k][A,i,k] & \quad A \to BC \\
\text{@goal} \quad [S,0,length]
\end{align*}
\]

Deductive systems can provide a framework to prove correctness (soundness and completeness) of a parsing algorithm. Well-formed transformations of deductive systems would permit the addition of new capabilities such as weighted rules in the grammar. Deductive systems could also provide a means to compare different parsing algorithms. This book provides several examples of how such properties can be useful in parsing theory and parsing implementation, in particular for converting a parser into an error-correcting parser and explicitly showing the relationship between several dependency parsing algorithms.

Sikkel’s definition of parsing schemas (Sikkel 1997) extends deductive systems by formally defining the semantics of items and related concepts used in deductive systems. In particular, items are sets of partial constituency trees that are licensed by
rules of the grammar. As a result, parsing schemas allow compilation of schemas to executable parsers and also permit formal reasoning about properties of the parser directly. Unlike many deductive systems used to define parsers, there is no one-to-one relationship between a parsing schema and algorithm. In later work, Alonso Pardo et al. (1999) showed parsing schemas can be used to define parsers for other grammar formalisms such as tree-adjoining grammars.

This book, which is an extended version of Carlos Gómez Rodriguez’s Ph.D. thesis work, extends the theory and practice of parsing schemas in several directions. There are three major parts to this book:

Compiling and executing parsing schemas. The first part of the book provides a language syntax that can be used to precisely specify parsing schemas and a compiler for this domain-specific language. The syntax is shown in the CYK example above. The full specification also includes interpretations for indices such as \( \text{i} \) and \( \text{i} + 1 \) as word positions, \( \text{A}, \text{B}, \text{C} \) as grammar symbols, and how deduction steps and goals are converted into parser code. The implementation details, including static analysis of the schema and the Java code generation, are described well and in sufficient detail. The source code of the compiler for parsing schemas is available for download at www.grupocole.org/software/COMPAS. (The code is typical research software—it takes some effort to use it, but once you do, you can play with compiling and running most of the schemas in the book.) This part of the book contains experiments on comparing many different parsing schemas for each of these formalisms. The comparison is done using hand-written grammars with feature structures (the parsers include feature unification) and evaluated on test-suite data rather than on modern Treebank grammars and data from newswire and other “real-world” data. Another issue is that the comparison does not include the GHR parser (Graham, Harrison, and Ruzzo 1980), which may impact the comparison between CYK and Earley parsers. Also, interesting synthetic-data experiments are presented that compare tree-adjoining parsers with context-free parsers; it is not clear whether these results extend to natural language corpora. With regard to implementation of schemas, the focus is mainly on agenda-based implementation of deductive steps rather than, say, the use of (pushdown) transducers to produce parse trees.

Error-repair parsers. The second part of the book focuses on error-repair in parsing (using parsing schemas, of course). Such an approach tries to deal with limited coverage of the grammar by performing insertions, deletions, or substitutions on the input string. This makes a lot of sense in programming language parsers, but for natural languages it makes little sense to transform the input because the grammar has poor coverage. It is trivial to add (weighted) glue rules that accept any input string, or a finite-state acceptor of strings can be used as a back-off grammar to improve coverage. Speech repair and other such cases are typically handled using appropriate augmentations of the underlying grammar combined with grammar-driven edits (Charniak and Johnson 2001). Despite this, error-repair is a good use-case for parsing schemas. Gómez Rodriguez can show that some existing error-repair parsers are in fact provably correct, and also a generic recipe can be given that converts any given parser schema into an error-repair parser schema. This is an instructive use of parsing schema transformations, because it is easy to show that the changes preserve correctness.

Parsing schemas for dependency parsers. This third part of the book has the potential to be the most popular. There is increased interest in multilingual dependency parsing, and there are a large number of different dependency parsing algorithms. Parsing schemas
allow a concise description of many different parsing algorithms, and Gómez Rodríguez provides many parsing schemas corresponding to popular dependency parsing algorithms; there are too many to list here, but he provides schemas for no less than ten dependency parsers, including some that recover non-projective dependencies. He also provides explicit relationships between schemas for these varied parsers, such as item refinement (an item deduced in one parser is broken up as multiple items in another parser) or step refinement (a deduction step in one parser can be emulated by a sequence of steps in another parser). It is also useful that these relationships are transitive and reflexive. However, it is in describing dependency parsing that the biggest weakness of parsing schemas is exposed and its potential role as an universal language for the parsing community runs into trouble. Non-constructive aspects of parsing cannot be represented with a schema, because that violates the semantics of deductive steps. For instance, in a parser that computes the dependency tree by using the minimum spanning tree (MST) algorithm (McDonald et al. 2005), there is a step that eliminates cycles in the graph. This step is not constructive and therefore the MST parser cannot be represented as a schema. Parsing schemas are generally grammar-driven and often parsers are written without any finite underlying grammar, which makes tree building harder to describe concisely.

The discussion of related work touches on the use of Prolog for parsing schemas (Shieber, Schabes, and Pereira 1995), Datalog for specifying parsers (McAllester 2002; Liu and Stoller 2003), the DyALog system (Villemonte de la Clergerie 2005), and Dyna (Eisner, Goldlust, and Smith 2005). It is true that Dyna is quite powerful because it is a full general-purpose declarative programming language, but for that reason it offers an attractive alternative to parsing schemas. On the other hand, schemas do allow formal reasoning about parsers that may be more fine-grained than is possible in Dyna. Surprisingly, work on semiring parsing (Goodman 1998, 1999) is not mentioned. The use of probabilities or weights is generally ignored in this book, even though it enables interesting methods for speeding up parsers such as coarse to fine parsing (Goodman 1997) or generalized A∗ search for parsing (Pauls and Klein 2009). While there is more than enough content in this book, it does not cover the use of parsing schemas in machine translation. In particular, formal properties of schemas might make it easier to describe and implement the integration of language models into parsing algorithms for synchronous context-free grammars (Chiang 2007). Schemas might have much to offer with respect to proving correctness in machine translation decoders.

The potential reader for this book is likely to be a parsing enthusiast curious about the power of schemas to represent parsing algorithms succinctly and to prove them correct. They might also be interested in showing relationships between their novel parsing schemas and other well-known parsers, or showing how extensions to existing parsers are well justified. Dependency parsing enthusiasts who want to wrap their head around the many different parsing algorithms out there might also be interested in the concise description of such parsers.

References


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